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The Realities of Manpower Planning

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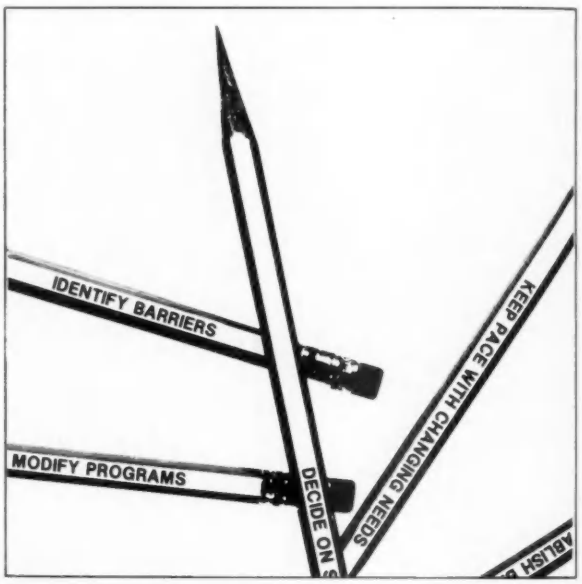
Perky People

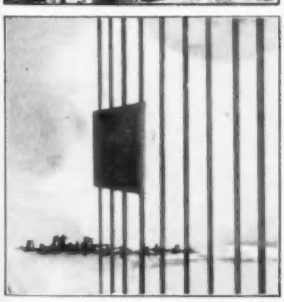
Age can be as much a state of mind as a chronological fact. Jersey Joe Walcott proved that, and so did a couple of Pablos named Picasso and Casals. Most people, of course, can't demonstrate the relativity of age by being the oldest man ever to become heavyweight champion of the world, or by continuing to be an active giant in the world of art or music long after the biblically alloted three score and ten. But thousands of men and women make the same point by working at more ordinary pursuits after most of their contemporaries have settled for a seat on the sidelines.

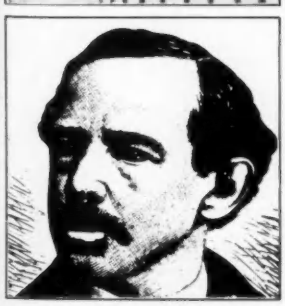
Some older people continue working because they want to, others out of economic necessity. Whatever the reason, people over 60 almost never have an easy time finding a job. It is a bit easier in Louisville, though, thanks to the State employment service's Retired Workers Job Service Center. At the center, three volunteers who themselves have long since qualified for social security find jobs for others who are *Not the Retiring Kind*. A look at the center and the perky people it helps begins on page 8.

If any group has more trouble finding a job than people over 60, it might be those who have just been released from jail. A criminal record alone is enough to turn off most employers. And many ex-offenders are unskilled and poorly educated. Now, a Manpower Administration study indicates that upon release from jail most prisoners have enough money to carry out only the sketchiest kind of employment search. It's a matter of *Freedom, Finances, and Finding a Job*, and that report starts on page 25.

Ellis Rottman







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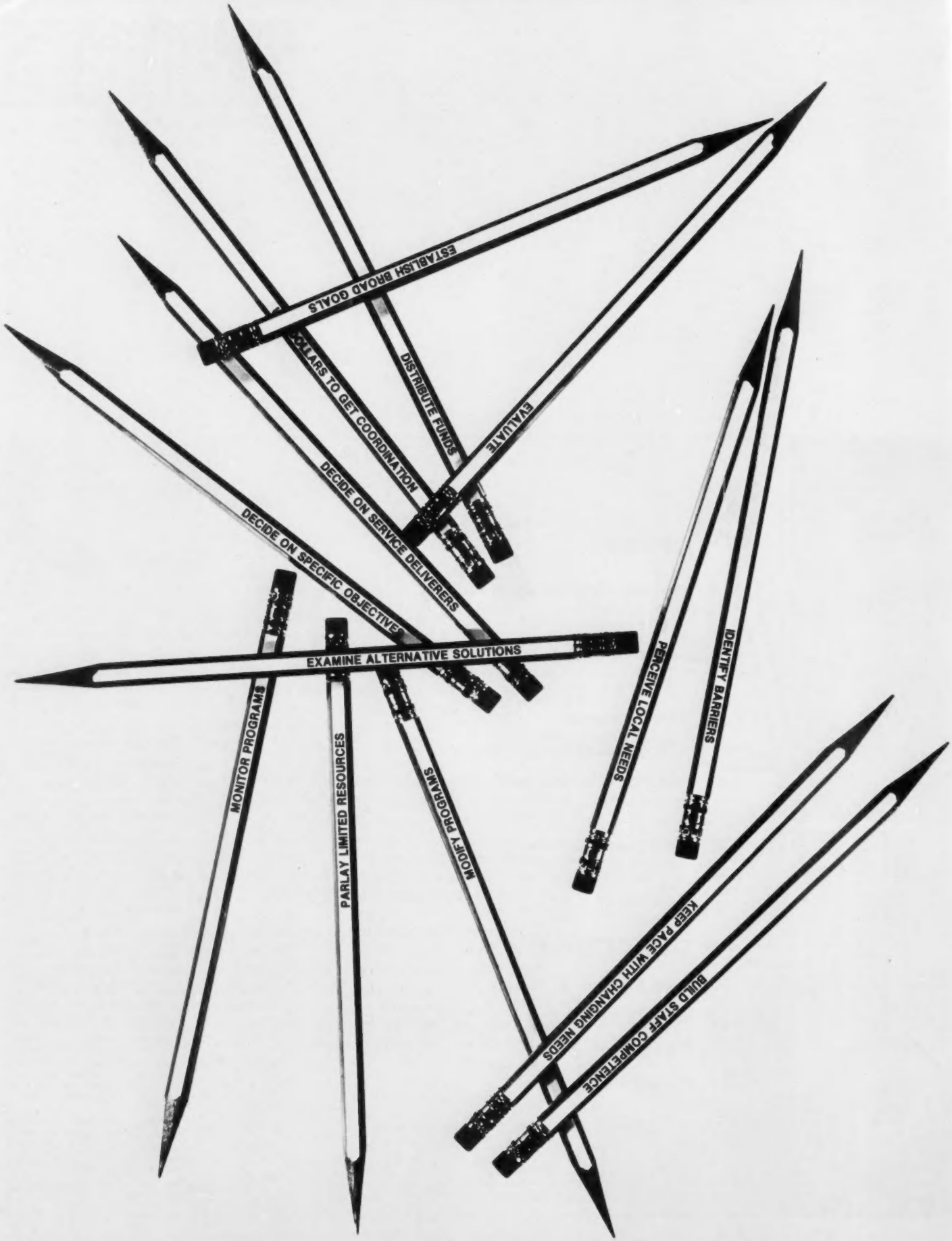
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COLLARS TO GET COORDINATION
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EVALUATE
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EXAMINE ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS
MONITOR PROGRAM$
PARLAY LIMITED RESOURCES
MODIFY PROGRAMS
PERCEIVE LOCAL NEEDS
IDENTIFY BARRIERS
KEEP PACE WITH CHANGING NEEDS
BUILD STAFF COMPETENCE

The Realities of Manpower Planning

Ability to Draw on Variety of Resources Seen Key to Success of Local Programs

by Garth L. Mangum and David Snedeker

Identify the problem and choose objectives. Examine and select alternatives. Implement, monitor, evaluate, and modify programs.

These are the classic planning steps. By and large, these steps and the techniques to execute them are the same for local manpower planners as they are for planners in other fields. Indeed, those who design local manpower programs operate, as do most other planners in the public sector, in a political environment. How well they understand this fundamental reality, and how they deal with it, will go a long way toward determining their effectiveness under the new Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), which makes State and local governments the prime sponsors of manpower programs.

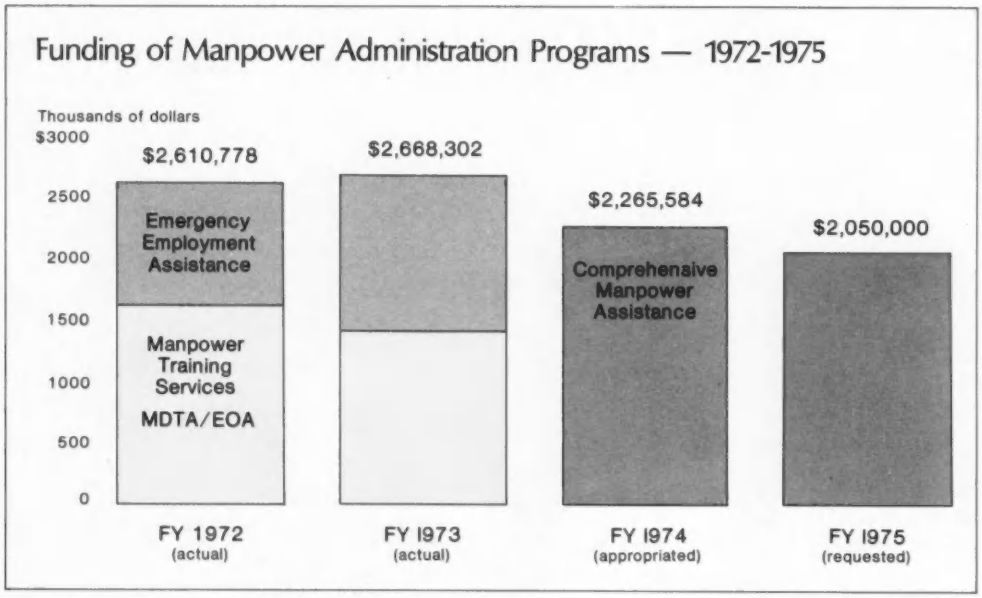
Manpower planners for State or local prime sponsors have no political power of their own. They must depend for influence upon the power of the governors, mayors, or county officials to whom they are ultimately responsible. Their contacts with these elected officials—and their influence over them—will differ widely by circumstance and issue. But one thing is certain: Little can be accomplished without at least the appearance of power, and in politics power is counted in votes, dollars, patronage jobs, and public services. Manpower planners have no direct control over these power sources, but they can have some impact upon each of them, and this is where they must garner whatever influence they are to exercise.

Theoretically, the target groups for manpower services are a source of support for the local elected official who does something about their needs. And, theoretically, the manpower planner who does a good job of perceiving local needs and parlaying limited resources into effective manpower programs also is building support for the chief executive—and for himself with the chief executive. Indeed, these political responses were inherent in the enactment of CETA, and its assumption that governors, mayors, and elected county officials would have a better fix on the needs of people within their jurisdictions than do officials at the national level.

But the manpower planner should be aware that there may be some important limits to the power that can be derived from serving manpower client groups. Often, the customers for manpower services are not numerous enough or cohesive enough to provide significant political rewards to the official who serves them well. Doing a good job for the disadvantaged even may bring negative votes from the rest of the populace. This may be the reason many mayors and county officials did not choose to take over community action agencies when they were given the opportunity to do so under an amendment to the Economic Opportunity Act. They did not want to be responsible for what they perceived as unpopular, and perhaps unsuccessful, programs.

These are among the political realities a manpower planner must face up to. There is a related reality that he should be aware of: The poverty sector of a community, while limited in what it can do to help an elected official, may be able to do him serious damage if he does not serve them well enough.

Garth Mangum is director of the Human Resources Institute at the University of Utah, and David Snedeker is a manpower planning consultant. This article is drawn from their book, MANPOWER PLANNING FOR LOCAL LABOR MARKETS, which is being published by the Olympus Publishing Company, Salt Lake City, Utah.



Manpower Planning

The manpower budget is a significant amount of money in terms of its focus on a limited target group in each jurisdiction and it is, ostensibly, an important source of clout to the manpower planner. In this area, however, the planner is limited by the fact that his role is not to deliver services with manpower monies but to determine how best to distribute funds among service agencies. Because these agencies are, in most cases, old-line in character and powerful in their own right, the planner's real ability to direct the distribution—and, perhaps, the reallocation—of funds among them will be governed by his influence, relative to theirs, with the chief executive.

Under CETA, community organizations will have limited power. Those like the Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC) and Operation Service, Employment, and Redevelopment (SER) will be sufficiently influential to get their piece of the action in some places, but for the most part this piece will be more crumbs than slices. Community organizations will be guaranteed no significant representation on State and local manpower councils. There will be representatives of target populations on the councils, of course, but such membership usually has proved relatively meaningless. Attractive as is the concept that recipients of programs should plan for the meeting of their needs, experience has been that client members generally are appointed in token acknowledgement of Federal guidelines or political necessity. Little is done that effectively solicits their involvement, and ordinarily they lack the sophistication to make their presence felt politically.

One of the important lessons of past experience is that without a sensitive advocacy on the part of planners and a recognition of the legitimacy of the claims of the disadvantaged on the part of politicians, there will be effective target group influence on policy decisions only where minority organizations are painfully militant. Another lesson has been that community organizations often have had the only real bureaucratic access to key target groups.

Another notable aspect of CETA is that it gives State and local manpower planners (or, more accurately, their political executives) some control over no more than two-fifths of the funds available for employability and employment programs for the disadvantaged. These are the monies which formerly were appropriated under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA), and the Emergency Employment Act (EEA), and now are authorized under CETA (see chart).

Moreover, the available resources under CETA have dropped about 30 percent from the level of funding under the three earlier pieces of legislation if the comparison is made between the 1972 and 1975 fiscal years and when inflation is taken into account. The EEA, of course, amounted to a $2.2 billion program set up to deal with problems in a period of extremely high unemployment. Manpower Administration officials point out that when EEA is not included in the totals, there has been an increase in training monies available under CETA of about $415 million.

Still, the bulk of the action—and funds—for manpower is in the hands of long established agencies. The employment service has a continuous flow of target group persons, as well as a significant portion of the job orders, and a

'Too often, planners sharpen their technical skills to the neglect of their bureaucratic skills . . . . probably as many sound proposals for change have been scuttled as a result of a planner's mismanagement as have been stopped by bureaucratic turf fighters.'

substantial amount of employer contact. School officials control most of the training capacity, and unions control key access points to a significant number of the better jobs. Vocational rehabilitation agencies generally provide the only intensive client assessments, and day care generally is the province of welfare agencies.

CETA describes its target population in terms such as the disadvantaged and those most in need of manpower services, which are broad and inexact definitions, applicable to populations many times larger than the available CETA funds can serve. In this situation, coordinated planning that encompasses the full range of services and resources for this large group is essential to success. Thus, to obtain the delivery of services which are needed for the disadvantaged, the planner must involve the expertise and resources of the service agencies.

If there is need to bring about change in the service delivery systems of these agencies, the astute planner understands that he must use more than analytical skills. The support and confidence of political and administrative leaders is essential to the planner seeking to act as change agent.

As a theoretical case in point, assume that a city has a contract with a community-based minority group to handle the intake of manpower clients, and that job development is contracted to the metro office of the State employment service. On the basis of studies which evaluate these procedures, the planner decides that the consolidation of three intake units in neighborhood centers into two would make it possible to reassign four intake workers to understaffed job development teams.

The planner brings this proposal before a meeting of the metro manpower council, which is chaired by the city manager. The metro employment service director and the director of a community-based organization are present. By the time the planner is two pages into the proposal, the directors of the employment service and the community organization have raised a half dozen points ranging from merit system problems to a question of whether the planner is trying to "sell out" the outreach philosophy. To cool hot feelings, the city manager tables the proposal, sets up a subcommittee to study it, and wonders if the planner he hired 6 months ago is the right person for the job. The planner, in turn, feels that he has accumulated new evidence to support his despair over bureaucratic imperialism and gutless city managers.

The problem goes beyond simplistic human relations. Of course, the groundwork should have been laid before the meeting. The council chairman should have been involved early in the planning and the directors of the affected agencies given advance notice and an opportunity to critique and shape alternatives to the proposal. Beyond these surface processes, however, lies the need for the planner to understand and respect the realities of bureaucratic manners and the way in which the public business is conducted.

Too often, planners sharpen their technical skills to the neglect of their bureaucratic skills. Perhaps this is a result of the long, ego-destroying years of the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) experience, or arises from the inexperience of a novice fresh out of graduate school. Whatever the reason probably as many sound proposals for change have been scuttled as a result of a planner's mismanagement as have been stopped by bureaucratic turf fighters.

CETA Money Best Used as Catalyst

The novice planner might say of the employment service and the community organization, "Who needs them? If they don't knuckle under, we'll drop their contracts and set up our own system." The reality is that there are few places in the country where such action will bring better results because in most communities the prime sponsor controls such a small fraction of the manpower resources. The prime sponsor's CETA dollars generally are best used as a catalyst for coordination and for filling gaps in service delivery in order to create a more complete system. Money spent duplicating services or facilities that can be provided from other sources, in the final judgment, must be considered a planning failure.

The planner also must accept the fact that he will have little or no control over access to most jobs in the labor market for which manpower clients are trained. Employers are jealous of their hiring prerogatives. Only the unions, by labor market power, and government, by regulation, have been able to wrest away any job control. For the most part, the manpower planner will be planning to prepare people to compete successfully for available jobs. In the course of doing so, he may sometimes find it advantageous to persuade employers to accept a civic duty or subsidies to hire and train the disadvantaged. However, the emphasis should be on strengthening the manpower clientele sufficiently to weather labor market forces, and not on changing the character of these forces.

'Planners also may be able to end agency monopoly on particular services. They have the authority, if they are politically able to exercise it, to assign a task to the most competent provider of that service, regardless of precedents.'

Manpower Planning

Planners also lack power to hand out government jobs, an ancient political method for solidifying power, because they probably will have at their direct disposal only a handful of jobs in the planning office. But planners will have a major responsibility to build into manpower programs monitoring and evaluation devices which will assure equal employment opportunity. Under CETA, old-line agencies are apt to get most of the service delivery contracts and to have most of the staff jobs. Traditionally, their merit staffing and civil service procedures have acted as barriers to minorities, unlike the situation in community agencies like OIC and SER, which have offered minorities ready access to staff slots.

CETA is the result of 10 years of groping toward a system that would combine Federal resources and Federal standards with manpower programs designed and operated locally to meet local labor market needs. Enactment of CETA, however, does not guarantee that programs will be adapted to local needs. All it guarantees is that local planners will have their day. They may ignore or never discover those needs. They also may fall prey to inertia. The best conceived plans may fail in delivery and vice versa. The only certainty is that adaption to local needs was impossible as long as manpower programs had to conform to a uniform national pattern.

Chance for Accountability Cited

A possible consequence and corollary of adaptability is responsiveness. The locally planned system has the potential to respond to changing or newly recognized needs, something nationally directed programs lacked. To keep this advantage intact, planners must guard against the natural tendency to follow lines of least resistance and to do this year what was done last year regardless of changes which may occur.

CETA presents the opportunity to build real accountability into the manpower system. Accountability requires clear objectives, reasonable yardsticks to measure results, and the ability to reward or punish on the basis of performance. Under the old setup, there was neither the resources nor the energy to monitor and evaluate performance in depth. National evaluations of programs could assess whether a program was, on the average, a useful one and whether the average enrollee in a program was better off than he had been before. But it was not possible—or at least not common—to hold local service deliverers accountable for their stewardship.

CETA assumes that voters will hold State and local politicians accountable for manpower programs. The flaws in this argument are the low visibility of manpower problems among the many issues facing political executives, and the usually weak organization of the manpower constituency. Moreover, it is not realistic to expect the "Feds" to monitor and evaluate any significant number of individual programs. In fact, it has been the painful experience that Federal plan approval and monitoring tend to limit flexibility rather than enforce responsiveness. It is relatively easy for Federal officials to determine whether prescribed procedures are being followed, but nearly impossible to determine whether a plan or program fits current needs or has the elements of success.

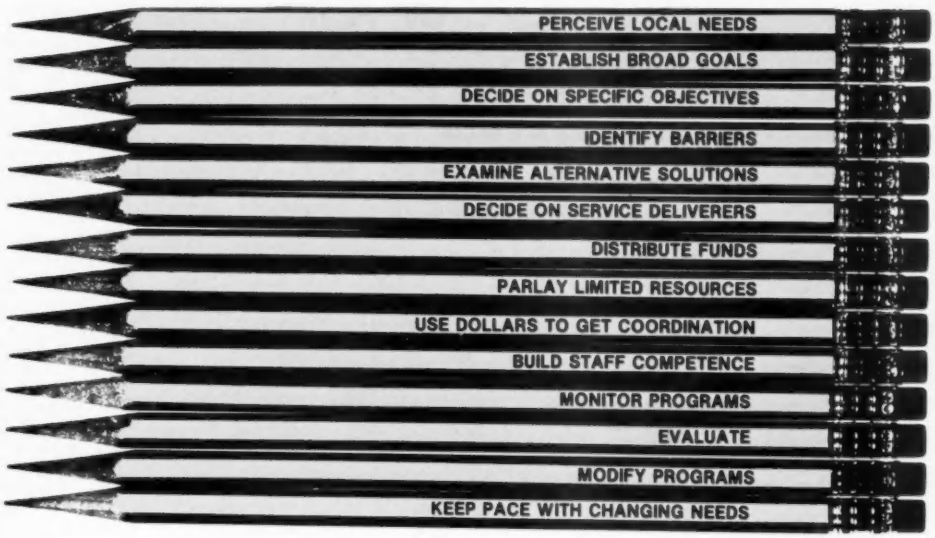
The manpower planner is in a key position to see that the appropriate people are served, and to do other program monitoring and evaluation. It won't get done unless he does it. Whether planners will be as rigorous in evaluating the results of their planning as they are likely to be in assessing the performance of service delivery agencies remains to be seen.

A promising potential advantage of decentralized and decategorized planning is the coupling of services and service deliverers in ways that were rare under national programing. Under the old Manpower Development and Training Act, for example, institutional training was viewed as an educational responsibility and was administered by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, while the employment service, an arm of the Department of Labor, was responsible for on-the-job training. Programs coupling institutional and on-the-job training—a desirable mixture—were rare because they required crossing agency lines.

Local labor market planners can deal effectively with such problems. Their plans can call for alternate periods of institutional and on-the-job training with the employment service and the schools responding as subcontractors for the appropriate responsibilities.

Planners also may be able to end agency monopoly on particular services. They have the authority, if they are politically able to exercise it, to assign a task to the most competent provider of that service, regardless of precedents. Probably, the traditional agency for that service will be the one most capable of delivering it. Potential competition, however, can be a useful goad to improved performance.

Along with its considerable potential for progress, decen-



tralization also presents some difficulties. CETA—perhaps more by coincidence than by design—may result in a slackening of equal employment opportunity emphasis. Certainly, it was easier for a minority group to marshall sufficient national power to influence legislation and administrative fiat than it will be for that same group to have an impact upon all local political scenes across the land. Usually, the locations where minorities are majorities are resource- and opportunity-starved places. And, while some mayors of large cities may be vulnerable to minority political power, governors, county commissioners, and mayors of smaller cities generally are less so.

Too Much Decentralization Possible

Wherever prime sponsors continue to emphasize service to minorities and to the most disadvantaged, it seems likely that this will occur more because they feel it to be right than because they feel pressured. Political power is a more dependable currency than is moral commitment, although it is reassuring when they are both on the same side. The manpower planner is in a unique position to keep them in parallel.

CETA also suffers the threat of excessive decentralization. Most of this country's major labor market areas contain more than one political jurisdiction meeting CETA population requirements for eligibility. The incentives for separate jurisdictions in the same labor market to share prime sponsorship through a consortium are weak relative to the advantages of independent prime sponsorship. Consortia are forming, but how attractive this arrangement will prove remains to be seen.

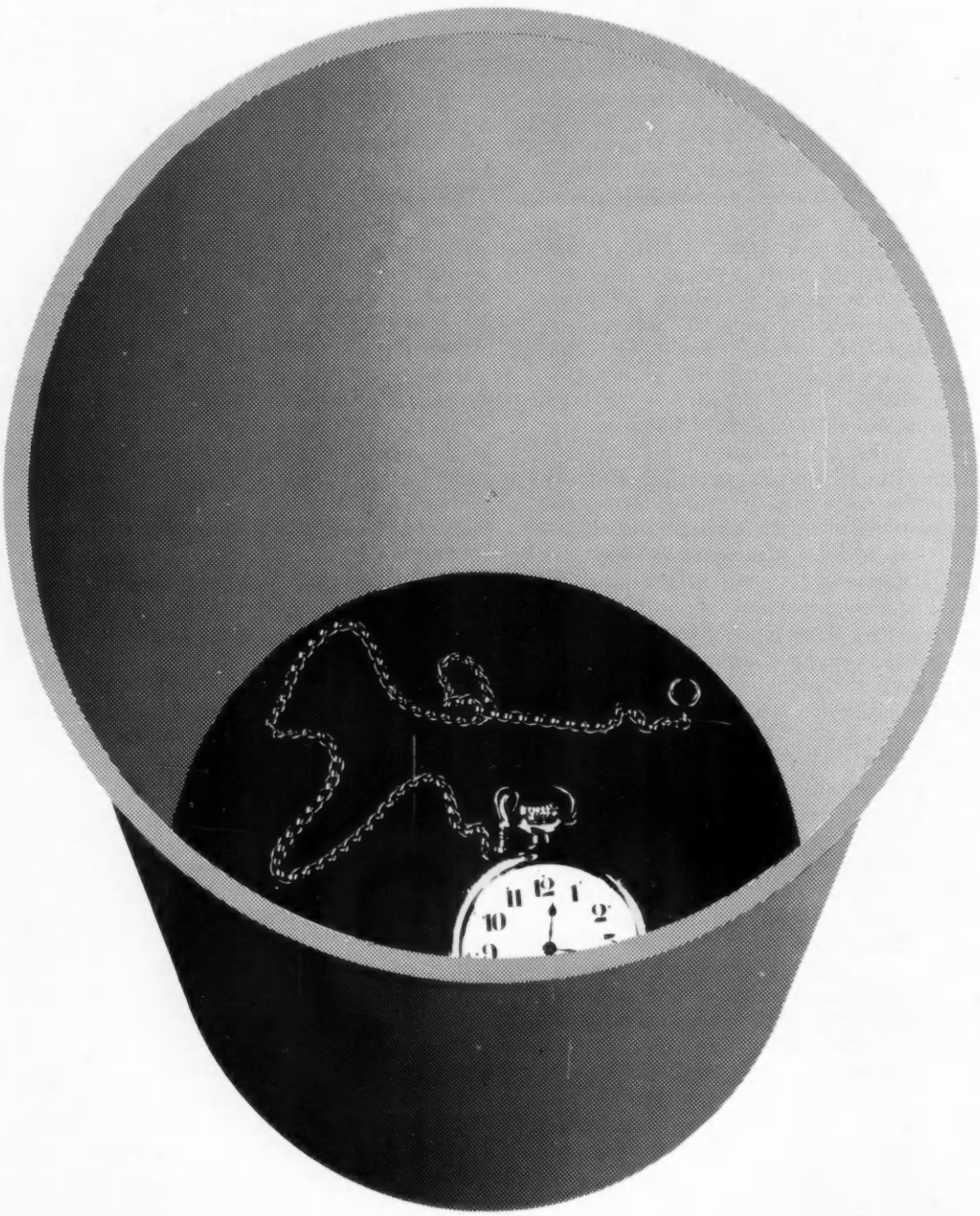
Another potential problem is that there is likely to be a lack of manpower planning staff competence as CETA gets underway. But an assumption that Federal staff is more competent than its local or State counterparts is not justified. Moreover, the national level never required functions or skills which are comparable to those now needed by planners at the local labor market level. This kind of manpower planning is new, and the competence would have to be developed, whether in Washington, regional offices, or at State and local levels. Competence might as well be developed where the action is.

Decentralization also aggravates problems of political influence and patronage. Not that there are no such pressures in the Federal Government. There are, and they will continue to be felt in manpower programs. Now, State and local politics will be added to the total. However, one cannot argue for local adaptation and local political responsibility and decry local politics.

It took 12 years to bring Federal manpower policy competence to its present relatively satisfactory level, and there is as much to learn at the local level. However, there is a base of experience in most sizable communities, a Federal capability to draw upon, and a body of technical assistance and training competence in and out of government. The long learning process can be shortened, but only if the lessons of past experience are identified, disseminated, and heeded, and if the available talent is marshaled and magnified through training and the development of professional planning techniques. This will happen if both the suppliers and the users of manpower planning are aggressive in their demands for planning competence. □

Not the Retiring Kind

by Emil Michael Aun



Employment Service Unit Specializes in Finding Jobs for People Over 60

When Carroll F. Briscoe lost his job of 15 years in October 1972, a State employment service counselor in Louisville advised him to apply for unemployment compensation. But he refused. He wanted a job and, with the help of the employment service, he was soon placed as a desk clerk in a Louisville apartment house.

The story wouldn't be unusual except for one thing: Briscoe was 86 years old at the time.

The State employment service in Louisville has obtained 4,000 placements for older jobseekers like Briscoe since 1966 through its Retired Workers Job Service Center. The center serves only workers over 60 years old, placing them in full- or part-time jobs. Located in Dosker Manor, a federally subsidized apartment house complex near downtown Louisville, the center is run by a full-time employment service manager aided by three full-time volunteers.

Briscoe typifies one kind of client aided by the center. He could get by without the $28 he earns for 2 days' work a week. He and his wife both collect social security and he has a second pension from his 37 years as a street car and busdriver. But he has worked steadily since his first job in 1903 (in a furniture factory where he earned $3 a week) and he is determined to go on working.

"I enjoy it," Briscoe explained. "When you retire there's nothing to look forward to. That's the whole thing in a nutshell. Someone asked me the other day, 'How long will you work?' I said, 'Till I die.' "

More typical, perhaps, is Lela Edwards, 64, a receptionist for Louisville surgeon Richard E. Doughty. She also likes to work—"I'd go crazy if I stayed home all the time"—but her assets were badly drained by the lingering illness of her late husband. She needs her $300 monthly salary to supplement her modest social security check.

Employers are understandably less concerned with the reasons older people work than with the results. And they have found that hiring the aged has been a decided plus. "I had a series of young people in here and they took no pains to do a good job," said Dr. Doughty. "They weren't dependable like Mrs. Edwards."

"I'm from the old school," said Mrs. Edwards. "I was taught that when I got a job, I had to do it. There are plenty of times when I feel like I don't want to come in—but I come. I haven't missed a day yet." And that's been 4 years.

Part-Time Jobs Stressed

As a measure of her devotion to work, Mrs. Edwards may have to sacrifice part of her social security income this year. She had been alternating on the job every 3 months with another older worker; each worked 6 months a year. But recently her alternate has been sick, and Mrs. Edwards, now working full time, seems certain to surpass the $2,400 that social security recipients are allowed to earn without losing part of their Government check.

To avoid such penalties and to reduce the pressure on older workers, the center concentrates on getting—or developing—listings for part-time jobs. A prize example is the arrangement worked out with the Louisville and Jefferson County Department of Health to hire retired people part time to fill full-time jobs. The job of switchboard operator, for example, now is handled by three people who work overlapping 4-hour shifts.

This means the switchboard is covered through lunch, and working hours can quickly be rearranged in case one of the three operators is off for the day. Each operator earns $39 a week after deductions and one, Edna May Schneider, who gives her age as "65 plus," has been on the job nearly 6 years.

Steadiness and dependability like this have relieved a major headache for the health department. "We had switchboard problems for years," said Dr. Thomas Wallace, department director. "An 8-hour day just seemed to be too much. By using three people, with staggered and overlapping hours, they can relieve each other and fill in when necessary. The extra woman is not idle. One always separates mail for us, does the filing, and helps other units in the department."

The Retired Workers Center is an outgrowth of a 15-month, $52,000 experimental and demonstration project funded by the Manpower Administration in 1966. The pilot effort sought to demonstrate the effectiveness of neighborhood employment centers, staffed by trained volunteers, in placing older people in jobs. Two centers were set up. One, located in St. Matthews, an affluent Louisville suburb, served mainly people over 40. The second, sponsored by Senior House, a local organization for older people, was established in the downtown YMCA and served primarily people past 60. The volunteers were managed by A. B. Jones, a full-time employment service professional who until then had specialized in running youth programs.

The final Manpower Administration evaluation of the project turned up the following facts:

- The two centers served 973 older

Michael Aun is the former associate editor of MANPOWER.

Not the Retiring Kind

job applicants of whom 405 or 42 percent were placed.

- The downtown center, serving those past 60, placed about 60 percent of its 461 applicants.
- Sixty percent of those applying downtown had been unemployed for a year or longer.

These results demonstrated that volunteers could handle placement services in a facility outside the employment service main office. It also demonstrated that the employment service could team up with an agency such as Senior House, and train its volunteers to serve the people making up their constituency. Finally, the pilot program showed that its specialized services were needed by employers and older workers alike.

Federal funding ceased when the demonstration ended, but the Louisville office of the employment service was determined to continue service at least for those 60 and over. "It filled such a need we had to go on with it," said O. L. Burkeen, area employment service manager.

In 1967, the St. Matthews facility was closed but the operation serving those past 60 was transferred to a ground floor apartment in Dosker Manor and assumed its present character. The office is open 5 days a week from 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. and is managed by Carl Bach, 60, a 12-year employment service veterans, and the only paid person on the staff. His full-time volunteer assistants are, Eula E. Redmon, 78, a widow and experienced office worker; Norma Embrey, 69, also a widow and a former secretary; and John Morgan, 75, former president of a machinists' union local.

The volunteers receive no pay, but are given $5 a day to cover lunch, transportation, and other expenses. Other project costs are $45 a month rent for the apartment, plus supplies and telephone.

"It doesn't cost much when you're using volunteers," said Burkeen. "I think we've shown that volunteers can do a job and do it effectively for such an employment service operation. These people are placing 40 to 50 job applicants a month and in January they reached 88, which is about twice what any of our professional paid placement units did."

Mrs. Redmon, who has been with the center since its demonstration pro-

Volunteer placement specialist Eula E. Redmond (left) goes over a list of job openings with Mattie M. Cassady. "They've got me several jobs, good jobs," says Mrs. Cassady, who lives at Dosker Manor, where the Retired Workers Job Service Center is located, and who has been registered with the Center since 1970.

Carroll F. Briscoe, 87, calculates he has 3 children, about 14 grandchildren, 12 to 14 great grandchildren, and 2 great great grandchildren. Still vigorous after a work career stretching back more than 70 years, he drives his own car to work, a round trip of 25 miles.

Joseph Greenwell, 68, operates duplicating equipment for the Louisville and Jefferson County Department of Health. His 4 hours a day—he shares the job with another worker—nets him $75.90 every 2 weeks, enough to supplement his social security check. The Retired Workers Center developed the job for him when he said he wanted part-time work and no weekends. Greenwell started with the Department in 1971 after a 3-month taste of retirement: "I didn't like it."

Not the Retiring Kind

"I was unhappy and the days were long," said former businesswoman Mildred Deming Waite, so after 14 years of retirement she was placed in September 1973 as manager of the Louisville Arts Club. Quilts, candelabra, and furniture are among the displays at the Arts Club.

Retired Workers Center Manager Carl Bach (left) examines the social security card of job applicant Adolph I. Griffin. Though Griffin is only 53, 7 years below the age limit for applicants, Bach tried to help the disabled veteran.

ject days, was named Louisville volunteer of the year in 1968. She prefers accolades like that to pay. "I enjoy the work," she said in her perky fashion. "I like people."

Her greatest satisfaction is getting someone a job. "Lots of them don't have the income I have," she said. She draws social security and a railroad pension. "They just can't live on what they get. I placed one woman who was 62 and had no income outside of work. Another woman was trying to get by on $93 a month."

Some of the placements made by her and her colleagues have been outstanding. One applicant, a retired engineer, was placed in a $16,000 job and a 78-year-old physician, unable to endure idleness, was given even a higher salary as a medical director for one of the area's largest employers.

Most placements, however, are in service jobs with small employers; only about 5 percent are in the professional and managerial category. Skilled craftworkers are in some demand. Typical placements are in jobs as bookkeepers, inventory clerks, companions, ticket takers, sales clerks, and security guards. Starting pay is usually about $2.25 an hour or less.

Transportation is a continuing problem. Bus service is spotty and many older people can't afford, or can't drive, automobiles.

In the early days, job orders also were a problem. Community support and the help of other agencies had to be drummed up through cards, phone calls, and newspaper publicity. A professional public relations campaign put together by a retired stockbroker brought in a spate of job orders, a majority of them from employers not at that time using the employment service. Now job orders flow in automatically and greatly outnumber applicants. To fill them, the local social security office refers a steady stream of clients to the Dosker Manor office, as do churches and local senior citizens' organizations.

Economic facts help explain the demand for older workers. Their primary competitors for the modest paying jobs they are offered are youngsters who often lack the patience, skill, and ingrained work disciplines of their senior contemporaries. Also, many of the jobs are part-time, ideally suited to retired workers who want to keep busy but who stand to lose some of their social security income if they earn too much. And, despite Federal law to the contrary, many employers do discriminate against the aged—so when an older worker finds a job, he or she is grateful and tends to stay with it.

'Needs Are Different'

There are, of course, exceptions. "We have one woman we've placed over and over again as a companion," says Mrs. Embrey. "She doesn't ask for a job, she demands it, and she's not at all grateful. We don't know what's wrong, but what can you do?" Since July 1971 the center has found more than 20 jobs for this woman.

Burkeen and James Marion, employment service placement officer in Louisville, point out that before the center opened, older jobseekers weren't getting personalized services. And they wouldn't if the center were closed. "There's a tendency for them to get lost in the shuffle," said Marion. "Their needs really are different from the rest of the labor force. Most of our orders downtown are for regular 40-hour-a-week jobs. The center does locate some full-time jobs but it specializes in part-time spots and it makes sure the openings go to those over 60."

They caution, however, that any such operation should be kept simple, and, so far as possible, separate. The Louisville center, for example, does not use the Job Bank and its daily printout of all openings in the area. Bach and his staff do their own job development work and solicit all their own openings. And they keep their own records.

They fill out an information card on each new applicant which stays permanently in the files at the center. On a separate form they report all hires and job orders weekly to the downtown office. Also on a separate form, they keep a record of employer contacts which is also sent downtown weekly so employer service representatives can coordinate their activities. They use Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS) forms to report directly to State employment service headquarters on each new applicant and on those who go inactive either by getting a job or by dropping out of the labor force.

Other than these forms, the staff's tools are the DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES, a Labor Department booklet called *Do's and Don'ts for Mature Jobseekers,* the telephone, and their own powers of persuasion.

A key element in their performance is that, being older themselves, they understand the needs of other senior citizens. As A. B. Jones, first director of the center, said in a speech before the Urban Affairs Institute:

"There is no doubt that most of us look forward to retirement. Some of us have even called it the day of independence. But when that day arrives, most of us prefer it to be temporary—a vacation rather than permanent retirement." □

Adios to Migrancy

by Timothy Larkin

Florida Citrus Workers Say Goodbye to Sporadic Jobs and Temporary Homes

When a rare cold front, unwelcome intruder from the North, threatened the health of animals at the unheated local pound, residents of Palm Beach, Fla., responded to a news story on the situation by sending hundreds of blankets, so many that the pound was faced with a surplus. Pound officials decided to dispose of the unneeded blankets by sending them to the migrant workers who were living in heatless shacks in parts of rural, western Palm Beach County.

Certainly, no one would sit down and list migrant workers as lower or less deserving than the four-footed wanderers being harbored in the pound, but somehow the gates of human sympathy often seem to open more readily to the latter. Why? Perhaps because the migrant worker has been around so long—vagabonds, landless army of land workers, symbolically tracing their lineage and uneasy heritage back to the curse of Cain.

Poor Conditions No Secret

Perhaps, too, callousness has evolved in step with growing awareness of the problems faced, and reported widely in song, story, and television special, problems of mobile pockets of poverty, tens of thousands moving horizontally from place to place in an America that honors the vertical move from class to class.

We are only too familiar with the conditions: Families living in unheated shanties, chicken coops, abandoned buses, cubicles in company housing; rapacious crew leaders fashioning an iron peonage; the overloaded car, heeled at a crazy angle at the side of a lonely road; the hurry to catch the next crop in the next State and the waiting to get paid for the one just completed; the promised bonus that doesn't materialize because of some misunderstood clause buried in fine print; a mortality rate from tuberculosis and other infectious diseases that is twice the national rate.

Perhaps the sheer practical difficulty of the problem is more significant than the callous growth that protects our collective sensibilities. One can warm both one's conscience and the chilled animals in the pound by a single, simple, complete gesture: Sending a blanket. But the warm, sympathetic human response toward any or all of the 184,000 workers and approximately 400,000 family members in America's migrant stream often dies at the threshold of action, discouraged by a host of complications. To the human problems of psychological isolation are added interconnected cryptograms involving health, education, citizenship, family structure, and the economics and realities of crops that require seasonal workers. Also, until all crops are harvested by machine, migrant workers seem an indispensable part of the agricultural process.

Thus, in answer to the question, "Does it have to be this way?", it has always seemed necessary to respond with a reluctant "yes," modified by various palliative efforts. Now, however, in light of some fresh perceptions, questions are being raised about that standard answer.

The seed for the fresh perceptions was planted when the Coca-Cola Company purchased some 30,000 acres of Florida citrus groves. Along with the land came the same migrant worker facilities and practices that had been employed by a succession of predecessor companies as well as the original farmers from whom the land was initially purchased.

In 1968, after a visit to the citrus groves, J. Lucian Smith, then president of Coca-Cola's Food Division, reported to company president J. Paul Austin that living and working conditions for the field hands were deplorable. Since Austin had earlier served as vice chairman of the National Alliance of Businessmen, where he had learned that so-called "unemployables" could, with appropriate job training and help, become capable and effective workers, he was not dismayed by the multitude of problems that seemed certain to emerge as a result of any serious effort to change the lot of a group not "unemployable," but poorly employed. As Austin put it, he and Smith "agreed that we must establish a program to correct these conditions and commit whatever funds and talent were necessary to do the job."

'Splint' Applied First

The first step was to apply a "splint" to the problem while more long-range solutions were being devised, and to appoint one of the company's top administrators, Foods Division Vice President William Kelly, to run what was designated as Coca-Cola's Agricultural Labor Project.

The splint consisted of a crash program to make the current migrant housing more habitable: To install plumbing, provide hot water, paint, clean up, sanitize, and build playgrounds and other basic amenities for the migrant workers and their families, using migrant labor for the work whenever possible.

Since Austin felt strongly that "human dignity cannot be forced to grow," one of the initial decisions was to avoid paternalism which might produce the

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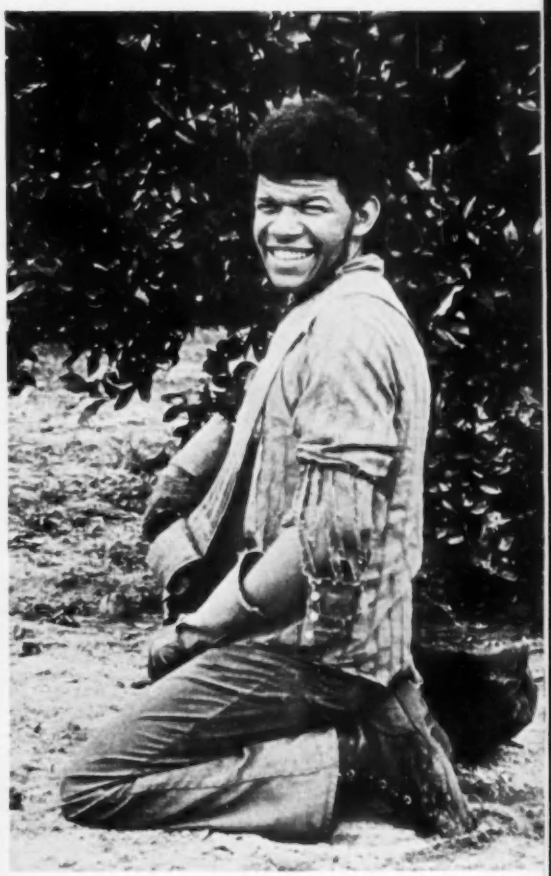
appearance of change without the substance. This key decision meant maximum involvement of the migrants themselves in fashioning any long-term strategy.

"We had to start at zero on this project," Kelly emphasizes. "We would have loved to be able to go somewhere and buy a how-to-do-it book. But there was no 'somewhere.' We were trying something that no one else—to our knowledge—had ever tried before. We were like explorers, except we had no maps. In the process, we realized we would be making mistakes. And we didn't have to wait long. We began with one.

Workers' Opinions Sought

"We wanted to find out what the workers wanted. The logical way was to get up an opinion survey. Well, we hired a marketing research firm and arranged for one. The result was a series of interviews carried out by some well-meaning, white, middle-class ladies. Do you know what they found out? Everybody loved Coca-Cola. Things were just great the way they were. Couldn't be better. What had happened was that the interviewers were perceived as an extension of management. And they were told what the workers thought they wanted to hear. The first thing we did after reading that report was to throw it into the trash can."

Kelly then looked for a behavioral science consulting firm with experience in solving problems related to some of those he felt would be surfacing in the Agricultural Labor Project. This firm, Scientific Resources, Inc., brought on board people who resembled the citrus pickers and who worked alongside them in the groves. The resulting report, according to Kelly, was com-



Although they are paid piece rates, regular harvesting workers are guaranteed $63 a week, even if weather or transportation breakdowns prevent them from working, and receive the same benefits as other company employees. In return for regular status, harvesters must agree to put in a full workweek and to pick a minimum number of boxes of fruit a day.

Harvesting Supervisor LeRoy McGill: "Once a black man didn't have a chance to be a foreman."

pletely different. "There were facts. Not altogether pleasant facts, but facts we could build on."

Working with the consulting firm, Kelly devised a program that involved five basic principles:

- The workers themselves would be fully involved in the solution of their own problems and in the creation of their own destiny.
- The emphasis would be upon accomplishment rather than promise. Thus, while the project was necessarily a long-range one, efforts would be made to take visible, immediate, and continuing action to improve the life of the worker whenever and wherever possible.
- The program must be capable of sustaining and extending itself on a viable economic basis. It must aim at being both realistic and capable of serving as a practical model for others.
- The program must emphasize the self-help potential that exists within every person. The welfare approach was considered demeaning both to recipient and to donor.
- The complexity of the problems confronted in the project would require a systematic, sustained, and fully integrated approach to bring about social change.

As Kelly put it, "We translated these principles into a program that centers on employment and income; on housing; and on health, education, and social service. And, of course, these are interrelated. It's unlikely, for example, that a person with poor health can make the most of better employment opportunities. It's unlikely that a person with lack of income potential can do much about getting his own home."

Within this complex of problems, Kelly said, employment was "in some ways the easiest." An examination of past practice revealed an almost total lack of production standards. It seemed to make no difference whether three people picked 100 boxes of fruit or 100 people picked three boxes. The focus was on the fruit, not the worker. Since transient labor and high turnover was the rule rather than the exception, worker income was low. Training was on a catch-as-catch-can basis, and a regular workweek was an abnormal occurance. Above all, the relationship between worker and employer was tenuous to the point of invisibility.

Citrus fruit workers can be divided into two basic groups—groves workers who cultivate the land, and those who actually pick the fruit. The first move involved an across-the-board upgrading in benefits for the 300 groves employees, who are essentially nonmigrant workers.

Regular Jobs Created

One of the first questions the company then asked itself was whether it was possible to offer year-round employment to many of the harvesters as well and, if so, couldn't they be classified as regular company employees. "As soon as we looked at it that way, a lot of things fell into place," said Kelly. "We have the largest lemon groves in the United States, and perhaps in the world. Lemons are harvested from August to December when the oranges are already picked. By bussing the workers to our lemon groves, we could provide work for them during the orange off-cycle period."

Finally, after some experimenting, the corporation offered to what it classified as "regular harvesting employees" benefits that included full-time year-round pay at current citrus piece rates, without any limit on the amount that could be earned; and a guarantee of $50 minimum a week—now raised to $63—regardless of weather, transportation breakdowns, or the availability of ripe crops to harvest.

Each regular harvesting employee also now gets company-paid life insurance and family health insurance, paid vacations and holidays, sick leave, a retirement plan, opportunities for promotion to supervisory positions, and the right to join all other programs for regular employees such as the credit union, the tuition refund plan, and the thrift plan under which the company adds 50 cents to every dollar saved up to 6 percent of salary.

"We now employ 900 pickers to do what once required 1,200," Kelly explained. Of this number, about 325 are classified as regular harvesting employees; the remaining 575 are seasonal harvesting employees who can work about 7 or 8 months a year. Seasonal employees receive the same harvesting piece rates as regular employees and essentially the same fringe benefits in proportion to time worked. Kelly pointed out that, "If the total hours worked last year by all 900 regular and seasonal pickers are divided into total wages paid, the average pay comes to $5.15 an hour," substantially above the statewide average of $3.98 an hour reported in a recent wage survey carried out by the Florida Department of Commerce. "And," Kelly added, "you've got to remember that there are a lot of husband-wife teams working as harvesters, so family incomes are often quite substantial."

In return for the guarantees and other benefits, the harvester who wishes to become a regular employee must agree to be available for work on a year-round basis and to pick an easily

Some of the former migrants who come to the dental clinic have never been treated by a dentist.

A wide range of books, programs, and services is available at the "living-learning library" operated by the Avon Park-Frostproof-Wauchula Community Development Corporation.

Maintenance standards for Lakeview Park are set by the former migrants who live there through their homeowners' association.

Migrancy

attained minimum number of boxes of fruit a day.

With assurance of adequate income, it was possible to examine the heretofore unattainable option of housing chosen by the employee rather than provided by the company. Before the Agricultural Labor Project started, the company was providing rent-free housing for nearly 600 workers, half of whom lived in single-family dwellings and half in dormitory-type quarters in labor camps.

"Frankly," Kelly said, "we wanted to get out of the housing business. It was a kind of 'psychological bondage.' But we had continued to provide the housing because of the old belief that it was the only way to maintain a work force. Well, as we learned more about the real attitudes of the pickers, we found they didn't want to stay in Coca-Cola housing any more than we wanted them to stay. But the problem for the migrant worker had always been: How do you get out of it?"

Project director William Kelly: "The lessons we've learned at some considerable cost are available free to others."

The first step was to assist workers to find rental housing in the area and then to close all of the dormitories, turning some of them into units to provide a variety of community services to the harvesting employees. With family housing, Coca-Cola offered to move, free and clear, above-standard units to lots purchased by the workers. For those living in units considered substandard, help was provided in renting or buying housing in nearby communities.

But in one area, near Frostproof in Polk County, there was no housing available, and no one willing to build on speculation. Therefore, the company decided to do its own building. It donated 30 acres of prime orange grove on the shore of bass-filled Lake Clinch. It also made available for $1 a year an additional 10 acres of producing orange trees to support a homeowners' association that was to be formed by residents of the area.

Housing Standards Set

"We looked for the most appropriate architect we could find for this project," said Kelly, "and his firm worked closely with prospective homeowners to discover exactly what they wanted. They pointed out the features they felt should be included in the houses, set maintenance standards—such as no junk cars and overgrown grass—that are reflected in a homeowner's agreement, decided what community services would be needed, and named the community and streets."

It was understood that the quality of the homes in this Lakeview Park community would meet Federal Housing Administration (FHA) standards, and that all units would be detached houses of masonry construction. The homes, which initially cost from $14,000 to $18,000, and which would easily cost twice that in Los Angeles, Chicago, or Washington, D.C., were financed through existing FHA mortgage programs.

Responsibility for selling the homes, identifying prospective homeowners, matching their desires to available lots, and taking initial loan applications was assumed by a former citrus harvesting employee, Herman Marshall, who had served as chairman of the housing committee that helped design the community. Coca-Cola arranged for an outside consultant to work with the housing committee and homeowners to explain the financial and other responsibilities they were assuming and how to manage them effectively. One result was a homeowners' association agreement that the U.S. Department of Agriculture has called a model of its kind.

The process of finding out what the workers wanted and then responding has continued to be a basic element in the success of the program. For example, the project discovered that some of the major complaints revolved around children working in or being in the fields, about lack of sanitary facilities in the groves, and about exploitation by supervisors through loans at rates of interest ranging up to 520 percent a year.

The company responded by banning children under 16 from the fields altogether. To take care of the sanitary problem, the company bought new buses with toilet facilities. It also provides a constant supply of ice water in the groves.

A more serious problem involved dealing with supervisors who doubled as Shylocks. The solution was to make

Youngsters who once might have accompanied their parents into the fields now spend the day at well-equipped child development centers.

loaning money at interest a matter for instant dismissal. This was coupled with a provision whereby a supervisor can write a check for an interest-free loan up to $100 without question to a regular employee who must repay it only through payroll deductions. Along with the low-interest loans available through the employee credit union, these moves have ended the practice of usery, once one of the major ways migrant families were bound to particular labor contractors.

Tom Starnes, an educator who is in charge of developing programs for the health, education, and social services element of the Agricultural Labor Project, believes that the effort's most important feature is fostering self-reliance and the emergence of leadership. To achieve this, he said, a community development corporation was set up in each of the four geographic areas where Coca-Cola citrus employees are concentrated.

The corporations, which are run by a board of directors composed of workers from the community, respond to expressed community needs for programs ranging from language, vocational, consumer, and other educational classes to library, medical, dental, and child care services. These services often are housed in the completely refurbished and landscaped buildings that once were the dreary dormitory quarters for single migrant workers. Such facilities are leased by the company to the community development boards for $1 a year.

The center operated by the Avon Park-Frostproof-Wauchula Community Development Corporation is typical. It operates a cheerful, well-equipped and professionally staffed child development center that is open from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., 5 days a week, and a "living-learning library," built with the help of a Florida Library Services grant of $75,000 and staffed by seven full-time employees, some of whom received training under a Manpower Administration Public Service Careers project. The library provides the harvesting employees with a wide range of programs and services including personal tutoring for school-age children, educational films, and individualized audiovisual education.

One of the highest priorities of the community development corporations is quality medical and dental care for employees and their families. With an initial $169,000 grant from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, a modern medical and dental facility that serves residents of all four areas was opened in the Avon Park-Frostproof-Wauchula center.

The dental problems—some of the workers had never been treated by a dentist—have only served to whet the appetite of the young dentist employed in the center, Dr. Max Weaver. His clinic is open 7 days a week and at hours that fit the schedules of the field workers. "Sometimes the neglect is so bad I can remove the teeth by hand," he said. He is most proud of his combination of preventive education for children and rebuilding teeth that would seem to be beyond hope. "One lady came in here on Wednesday and said she was getting married on Friday," Weaver recalled. "Her teeth were in horrible shape. But we did it. We gave her a beautiful smile for the wedding."

In addition to the fully equipped medical center, which includes X-ray, emergency room, and laboratory facilities, there is a vigorously pursued health program. Administered by a reg-

Pete Solano, who worked his way up from fruit harvester to area supervisor of one of the community development corporations, has become an articulate proponent of the self-help principle. "The greatest value," he says, "is the opportunity to see and learn—things like how to communicate, how to work with people, how to get them to listen."

istered nurse, Catherine Clark, with the help of assistants whom she has trained, the program maintains detailed health histories on every worker and family member.

"We stress outreach," Ms. Clark said. "To do that I have two community health aides for each community development board area. Each aide has taken an intensive 6- to 8-week basic course to learn medical terminology and how to check for parasites, do hemoglobins, check for sickle cell, and do the TB patch test. The main thing," she stresses, "is not just making health care available, but reaching out. We go right out into the groves to give immunations, such as tetanus. It's endemic here. And we arrange it so a whole family sees the physician together."

Health, education, and social services planning director Starnes reiterates the importance of the overall project philosophy of worker involvement. "If it's just a one way-street, with the workers involved in the program receiving, then it would be doomed to fail," he said. "But it hasn't been going that way. They have been making their own decisions. They have been working together, putting in a lot of hard—and unpaid—work on the boards of directors of the corporations, learning how to solve problems. There have been mistakes, sure. Some of the decisions aren't the decisions I would make or you would make. But that's precisely the point. The decisions are their decisions."

One result has been a sense of hope, particularly among the children. Maria Martinez, administrative director of the Avon Park-Frostproof-Wauchula Community Development Corporation, reads from a list of those going to junior college, nursing school, and taking other advanced education. "Take Mrs. Wilson," she said. "She used to work in the groves. Now she's in the library and aiming for a degree in library science."

But perhaps former citrus picker Pete Solano, now chairman of the Community Health Board and secretary of the Community Development Board, put it most succinctly, "Once the highest you could go was the top of a 15-foot ladder. All my life I was looking for a way out, now they've given me a set of keys."

The bold gamble taken by Coca-Cola with the Agricultural Labor Project seems to be succeeding, but what about its relevance to other migrant workers? What about the third guiding principle of the program, that it serve as a model? Can it be done by other employers?

Program Cost $4.5 Million

One of the first considerations in responding to that basic question is that ambitious, thorough programs such as this cost money. Coca-Cola is a bit embarrassed about the cost so far, an estimated $4.5 million, though Kelly is quick to point out that a significant proportion of that is unique to the conditions that the Agricultural Labor Project encountered. For example, the provision of land for the Lakeview Park housing project, the architectural fees resulting from the effort to design a community to reflect the preferences of the prospective buyers, and the unexpected expenditure of almost $145,000 for water and sewage facilities which it was originally anticipated the municipality would provide.

"In effect, as far as we knew, we were inventing the wheel here," Kelly said. "We spent a great deal of money finding out what people wanted. The lessons we've learned at some considerable cost are available free to others. So those costs need not be duplicated. Also, there are already savings apparent in administration. Personnel requirements have been cut by 25 percent. Our turnover rate has been reduced by 195 percent. We now have a comparatively small, comparatively stable work force. And these savings will mount year after year after year."

Kelly also pointed out that the expectation is that the cost of providing certain basic services such as health care will eventually be picked up by local or State government.

It is perhaps also worth comparing the total expenditure by Coca-Cola, which has made such a major impact on one group of migrant workers, with the $625 million spent in grants and loans by the Federal Government for migrant programs between fiscal 1966 and 1971, programs found by a General Accounting Office report to be of little benefit to the workers and their dependents, in large measure because of a lack of any overall plan or common direction of effort among the several government agencies involved.

One area where it would seem difficult to reproduce the Coca-Cola program involves the availability of a crop succession, such as the grapefruit-orange-lemon cycle that forms the basis of the year-round jobs for the regular harvesting employees. But even here the real point is that the essence of the project is a change of emphasis from exclusive concentration on crops to a concentration on crops and people.

It would not seem impossible that American agriculture, which has risen to the highest production levels in history through a concentration on crops, might well, through a similar change of focus, provide other migrants with sets of keys to the way out. □

News&Notes

Women will be recruited for apprenticeship training through expanded Manpower Administration outreach programs in Boston, New York, Cleveland, Atlanta, Chicago, and Los Angeles. The pilot projects to include women in the ongoing Apprenticeship Outreach Programs in the six cities is part of a Labor Department effort to expand apprenticeship opportunities for women. Up to now apprenticeship outreach has concentrated on recruiting minority young men and preparing them through cram courses to pass apprenticeship entrance examinations for skilled trades unions.

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The Manpower Administration has established an office of Indian Manpower Programs to help jobless American Indians, on and off reservations, gain training and employment and to offer training and technical assistance to help Indian organizations qualify for an estimated $42 million earmarked under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) during the 1975 fiscal year. Wherever possible, the Office of Indian Manpower Programs will work through governing bodies of Indian tribes or other groups and Alaskan native villages to administer federally funded manpower programs. In cases where such groups are unavailable, services will be provided through State and local governments. The new Indian office is part of the Manpower Administration's Office of National Programs.

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More than 75 percent of the Nation's approximately 2 million private household workers now come under the minimum wage provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Under recent amendments to the act, a minimum wage of $1.90 an hour now applies to domestic workers who receive at least $50 per calendar quarter from one employer or who work a total of more than 8 hours a week for one or more employers. The minimum wage for these workers will rise to $2.00 an hour January 1, 1975; to $2.20 January 1, 1976; and to $2.30 January 1, 1977. It is the employers' responsibility to determine whether their domestic employees are covered under the act and to inform their employees of the new provisions as well as pay them the required minimum wage or overtime.

Herman S. Solomon of the New York State Department of Labor has been awarded the 1974-75 Arthur J. Altmeyer Fellowship. Solomon will spend a year at Cornell University's School of Industrial and Labor Relations studying the role of unemployment insurance in the labor market. The fellowship memorializes Arthur J. Altmeyer, a pioneer in the social insurance field. It is made available by the U.S. Department of Labor annually in competition open to individuals working in the Federal-State unemployment insurance program. Competition for the 1975-76 fellowship is now underway.

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Between 1,000 and 1,800 inmates and ex-offenders in the Oklahoma prison system will get counseling, testing, and job placement services under a $320,500 one-year Manpower Administration contract with the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission. Employment counselors assigned to prisons and local employment service offices will work with inmates about to be released and ex-offenders who already have been released. They will also assist in developing jobs and refer individuals to training.

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Some 800 welfare recipients will be trained for environmental control jobs under a joint project of the Manpower Administration and the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). The $1 million pilot project, which will be undertaken in Baltimore, Baton Rouge, Dallas, Denver, and the State of South Carolina, may set the pattern for a nationwide Federal, State, and local program. Training and employment will be offered in a wide range of jobs in water purification and distribution, sewage treatment, garbage disposal, air pollution control, and pest extermination. Trainees will be employable recipients of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) enrolled in the Work Incentive (WIN) Program. To make the experience gained in the pilot program available nationwide, the EPA will prepare and distribute to State and local officials a comprehensive manual for setting up and administering community programs to train welfare recipients for environmental protection jobs.

News&Notes

A $118,000 contract to develop a comprehensive minority health manpower plan has been awarded to the National Medical Association Foundation of Washington, D.C., by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Under the contract the Foundation will set up a nationwide clearinghouse of information for minority persons on health manpower training, job opportunities, and sources of financial aid. The Foundation also will establish a nationwide counseling service directed at recruiting minority persons into health training and upgrading minority health workers. The contract also is intended to stimulate studies of dropout rates among minority health students and the development of alternate model solutions to the problem.

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The AFL-CIO Human Resources Development Institute (HRDI) has received a $4.7 million contract from the Manpower Administration to help provide new jobs and training for 23,000 unemployed persons. Under the 1-year agreement, HRDI will develop 22,000 jobs for unemployed disadvantaged people and prepare and place an additional 1,000 minority youth as apprentices in the building and construction trades. HRDI was established by the AFL-CIO in 1968 to mobilize labor movement resources in a nationwide program to help recruit, train, upgrade, and hire the unemployed and underemployed through ongoing Manpower Administration programs. HRDI operates 53 local offices and will shortly open its 54th in Alaska.

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Professors from medical colleges throughout the Nation are journeying to Mexico to teach classes for American medical students attending the Autonomous University of Guadalajara, according to the New York Times. With more than 1,700 students from the U.S., the Guadalajara university is the largest "American" medical school in the world. The article says many of those attending the Mexican school were qualified for but rejected by American universities, which last year accepted only one-third of the would-be medical students who applied.

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The educational level of the average American worker is increasing and the gap between black and white workers is narrowing, according to a study by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. Between March 1972 and March 1973 the number of workers with at least a high school education increased by 3 million while the number of non-high school graduates in the work force declined by 1 million. About 68 percent of all workers have a high school education, according to the study. The mean education of black workers in March 1973 was 10.8 years, compared with 12 years for white workers. This educational gap of 1.2 years compares with a 1.8-year difference in March 1964.

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The number of black students attending 17 predominantly white law schools in the South rose from 22 to 375 between 1969 and 1973, according to a Carnegie Foundation study. More black students were staying in the South not only to attend law school, but to practice law as well, the study said.

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Nine of the first 10 graduates of a test program to train Job Corps members for entry-level management or administrative positions have been placed in jobs with salaries ranging from $6,500 to $7,200 a year. Job Corps participants in the test program attend Shaw University in Raleigh, N.C., and study personnel practices, bookkeeping, production control, and other management and administrative subjects. Overall, 60 youth selected from Job Corps centers throughout the country will participate in the program.

* * *

The Job Corps has recorded the best 6 months in its 9-year history in placing disadvantaged young men and women in jobs and helping them return to school. During the last half of 1973, 70 percent of those leaving the Job Corps received jobs at an average starting pay of $2.23 an hour. Graduates of a group of union-run programs at Job Corps centers did even better. Ninety-seven percent of them obtained jobs at beginning rates averaging $3.58 an hour. Of all those leaving Job Corps centers during the 6 months, 18 percent reentered school and 5 percent joined the Armed Forces.

* * *

The number of States barring payment of unemployment insurance benefits to women who leave their jobs because they become pregnant has dropped to 27, down from 38 two years ago.

* * *

Nearly 5.7 million recordable work-related injuries and illnesses—5,500 of them fatal—occurred during 1972 in private nonfarm industries (other than railroads and coal, metal, and nonmetal mining), according to final estimates reported by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. In the industries surveyed, the incidence rate (number of injuries and illnesses per 100 full-time workers) for all recordable cases was 10.9. This rate indicates that, on the average, 1 out of every 10 workers experienced a job-related injury or illness during 1972.

Freedom, Finances, and Finding a Job

Released Prisoners' Search for Work Hampered by Lack of Cash

by Kenneth J. Lenihan

Every year over 80,000 men are released from State prisons in the United States. All these men, according to the courts, are serious offenders; they have been convicted of a felony and usually have received a sentence of a year or more. Many of them, despite the harshness and deprivation of prison life, will return to prison within a few years after their release. It has been estimated that 40 to 60 percent of those released from a State prison will eventually return, and most who do will return within 2 years after release.

Often, the ability of a released prisoner to find and hold a decent job is a vital factor in preventing a return to crime and subsequently to prison. Even under the best of circumstances, former convicts face an unreceptive job market. Most have little formal education or job training, few skills, and scant work experience. To add to these difficulties, a Manpower Administration study indicates that most men leaving prison do not have enough money to carry them through an effective job search.

The study,[1] done for the Manpower Administration by the Bureau of Social Science Research, compiled data on the various States' practices concerning "gate money"—money the State gives to released prisoners—prisoners' earnings, savings, work-release payments, and other factors that determine a pris-

Kenneth Lenihan is a research associate with the Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., and author of the study referred to in this article.

[1] *The Financial Resources of Released Prisoners* is available from the Manpower Administration, Division of Research and Utilization, Room 9112, 601 D St., NW., Washington, D.C. 20213.

oner's financial condition at the time of release. The information (which applies only to male prisoners) was obtained through a 1971 survey of the correction departments of all 50 States and the District of Columbia.

There are two popular methods by which the States provide prisoners with money at the time of their release. The most common practice is simply to give a man a small amount—$10, $20, $50—regardless of whether he has any savings. The other alternative is to supplement a prisoner's savings up to a fixed amount. In Oklahoma, for example, a prisoner is guaranteed $25 at the time of release; if he has $15 in savings, the State provides a supplement of $10. If he has $25 or more in savings, he receives nothing from the State.

Some States vary their amounts depending on length of sentence or type of discharge. Alabama, for example, provides $2 for each year served, up to a maximum of $100. In some States other qualifications are made, such as no gate money for parolees or men on work release.

Only two States, Delaware and South Carolina, provide neither gate money nor a supplement. The others provide only a small amount—usually between $10 and $50—enough for a few days' expenses at most. (See chart 1.)

In the course of the survey, many correction officials complained about the pitifully small amounts the men receive, adding that such decisions are made by the State legislatures. In 36 States the amount of money is determined by statute; elsewhere, correction departments have jurisdiction. While some statutes have been changed in the past 5 years or so, increases in gate money have been relatively small. Some States have not changed the amount since the 1950's.

In the summer of 1971, the State of Washington made a significant change by passing legislation that would provide released prisoners with $55 a week for 6 weeks. The law also permits the probation or parole officer, at his discretion, to continue these payments up to 20 additional weeks. Unfortunately, the funds necessary to implement this new law were not appropriated at the same time, so the consequences of such a program are not known.

Besides gate money, many States provide clothing and transportation. If a State does not supply either, the released prisoner must pay for these necessities out of his gate money or savings. In all, 36 States provide both; nine provide only clothing; three provide only transportation; and three provide neither clothing nor transportation.

Most States providing transportation usually buy a bus ticket for the ex-offender to the locality where he intends to live or in which he was arrested. If he is from out of State, he usually is given a bus ticket to the State line. Some States, if they do not

Chart 1. Payment of Gate Money--How and How Much--1971
(by number of States)

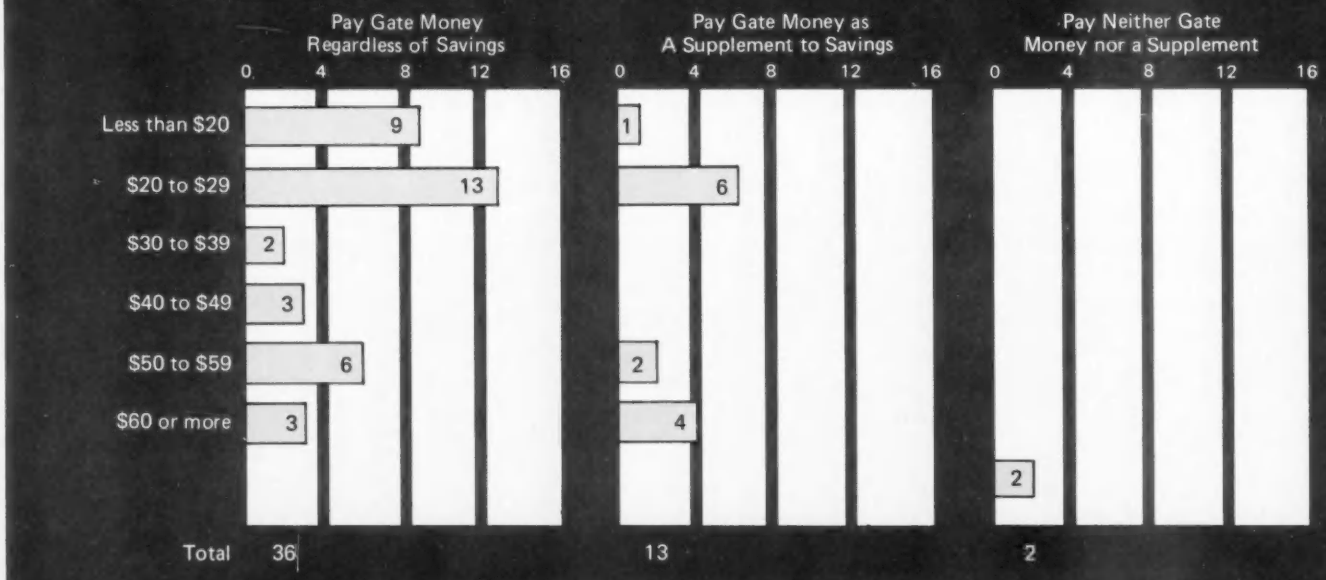
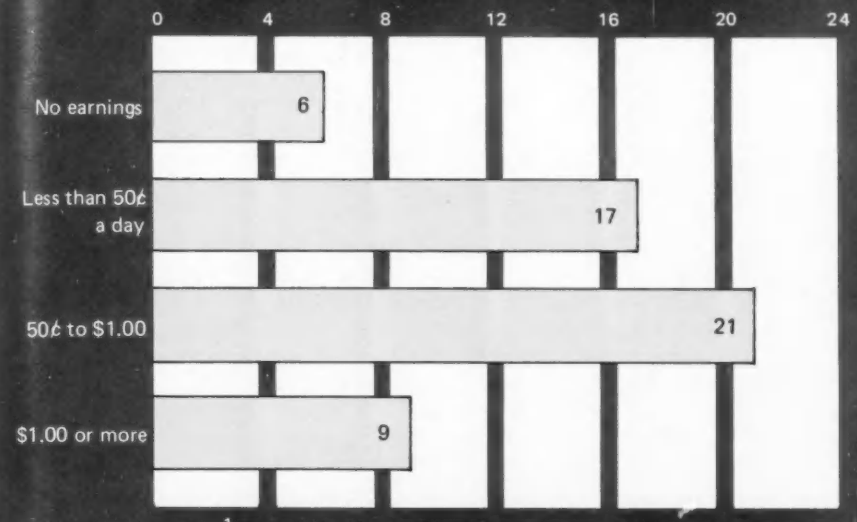


Chart 2. Inmate Wages From Prison Maintenance Or Prison Industries--1971 (by number of States)



[1] *Two States (Illinois and D.C.) are included in two categories since they have two distinct wage ranges*

purchase bus tickets, use State vehicles to supply transportation. In Connecticut, parolees are picked up by their parole officers and driven home.

The importance of transportation, of course, varies considerably depending on the size of the State. Furthermore, in considering transportation it should be remembered that most prisons are located in remote rural areas, while most State prisoners come from urban areas. In New York, for instance, the Attica Penitentiary is some 400 miles from New York City, where most of the inmates come from.

Where States provide clothing, it is only a minimal amount—usually a work shirt and trousers. Other clothing—underwear, socks, shoes—must be purchased out of gate money or savings. Released prisoners who have stored their own clothes often find that styles have changed or their clothes no longer fit. Thus prisoners usually face considerable clothing expense at the time of release.

Since States provide so little gate money, the financial condition of released prisoners depends more on their earnings in prison than on any gratuity they may have received. These earnings are derived chiefly from jobs connected with prison maintenance or service, or from work in prison industries, which usually pays more than institutional work. In prison industries, inmates help to manufacture such items as license plates, blankets, shoes, furniture—generally products that can be used by State agencies.

Pay Scales Are Very Low

Other sources of income for inmates are blood donations, medical experiments, and craftwork. Blood donations usually pay $5 a pint. Payments for medical experiments are higher and vary considerably according to the risk involved.

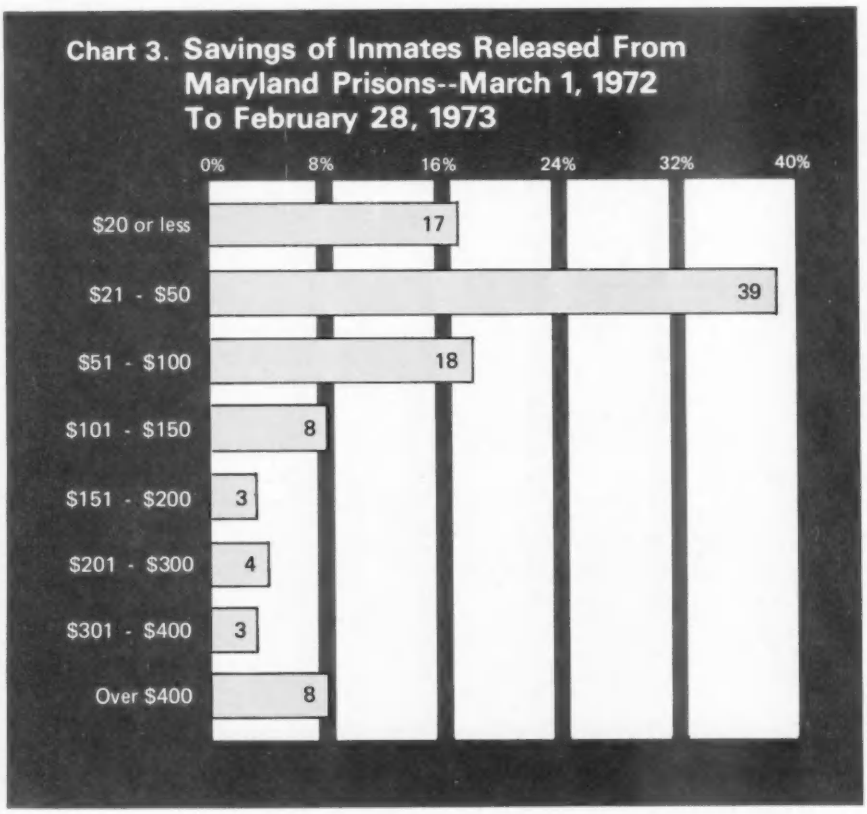
The most frequent wage for institutional work or prison industries is between 50 cents and $1 a day, with 21 States falling in that range. Seventeen States reported paying less than 50 cents a day. Only nine States reported paying $1 or more a day. (See chart 2.) Given these extremely low wages, it is not surprising that friends and relatives often must supplement an inmate's earnings so he can buy cigarettes, candy, toiletries, and similar items.

When the issue of low wages is raised, correction department officials often say that inmate labor is not worth much more. However, it appears to be a vicious circle: Inmates are paid very little because they produce very little, and they produce very little because they are paid so little—and no one takes the initiative to break the circle. As a result, correction departments are able to have their prisons cleaned, food cooked and served, laundry done, and products manufactured in prison industries—all at very low cost. This undoubtedly helps to explain how the national average cost of keeping a man in a State prison can be held to $9.99 a day—a figure that would be considerably higher if inmates were paid a reasonable wage.

Since inmates earn so little in wages, most of them have little or no savings when they are released from prison. Some inmates, of course, are able to save money in prison, but it is usually the few who go on work release or long termers who have had relatively good jobs in prison over a long period of time.

Although the study did not compile savings information nationally, data from Maryland, which pays inmates 50 cents to $1 a day (as much as or more than most States) showed that almost three-quarters of those released over a 1-year period had less than $100 in savings with which to begin their life anew (see chart 3).

Most men who have savings have accumulated their money from jobs on work release, not from institutional work or prison industries. Men on work release are paid the prevailing wage on the particular job they hold. In turn, however, most States require that an inmate pay for his room and board, clothing, and transportation to the job. And, if his wife or other dependents



Finding a Job

are on public assistance, he must reimburse the welfare department a specified amount, depending on his earnings.

One of the aims of work release is to help the inmate make the transition back to society—by getting back to a regular routine and possibly saving money. Work-release programs also are intended to provide employment continuity, from prison to release. Unfortunately, this goal often is defeated because most prisons are located in remote rural areas and an inmate from an urban area is not apt to move to the country to maintain his work-release job. The current trend toward more community correctional facilities, located in areas to which inmates will return, will help to overcome this drawback.

Work release is growing in popularity—40 States reported having such programs—but the number of inmates participating is only a small proportion of the total prison population. Roughly 1 percent or 2 percent of the inmates are ever on work release, and participants usually do not begin the program until 90 to 180 days before release.

There are no specific economic assistance programs in existence in any of the 50 States or the District of Columbia that deal exclusively with released prisoners. The major focus of welfare programs is the State's general citizenry. Therefore, the ex-prisoner is classified among the general welfare group without regard to unique or extraordinary problems.

In general, State welfare programs offer temporary assistance to former prison inmates. Twenty-seven States grant temporary aid without regard to employability; 16 States require total unemployability before granting minimal assistance. Of the remaining eight States, four have purely discretionary standards, and four grant temporary assistance to employable persons.

When a released prisoner is eligible, he usually receives only emergency aid—the minimum amount for a day or two—and it usually takes him, depending on the State's regulations, 4 to 8 hours of filling out forms and waiting in line to receive such assistance. In short, welfare assistance is not an attractive source of help among released prisoners, and is used only in extreme emergencies.

Costs Vary by Region

Only 18 States have any loans available for released prisoners, and most of those report lending money to only three or four men a year. Usually, the money comes out of inmate aid funds and it is given only under extreme conditions. Michigan and Wisconsin are the exceptions, having provided loans to 300 to 400 men a year.

As noted earlier, the average cost nationwide of keeping a man in a State prison is $9.99 per day, not including capital costs or depreciation. This cost varies considerably by region. New England States report the highest costs, averaging $14.82 per day, and the Southern States the lowest, averaging less than $5 per day. In part, these differences reflect differentials in wage rates for guards, since 90 percent of prison costs go for custodial functions. They also reflect whether a prison system provides its own food by farming and raising its own livestock—practices which are more frequent in the South than elsewhere.

Because inmates provide most institutional services at extremely low wages, per diem costs of operating a prison are relatively low. But the overall costs of operating a large prison system are high. Couldn't the money be spent in a better way—in a way that would help an ex-prisoner avoid returning to prison?

No one knows, of course, whether financial aid to released prisoners would help reduce recidivism. But the Manpower Administration, through an experimental research project in Maryland, is trying to find the answer. Similarly, in the State of Washington, the Law Enforcement Assistance Agency is supporting a program of financial aid to released prisoners. It is hoped that these efforts may show the States how they might better spend their money. □

Words & Figures

Employment Service Applicants

Local public employment service offices registered 10.2 million jobseekers during the first 9 months of fiscal year 1974. A profile of the applicants shows the typical jobseeker to be an urban white male in his prime work years and with a high school education.

The records show that use of the employment service by minority groups approximates their proportion among the unemployed. The more than 2.1 million blacks who registered with the employment service comprised 21 percent of the applicants. Hispanos, with 700,000 applicants, accounted for another 7 percent.

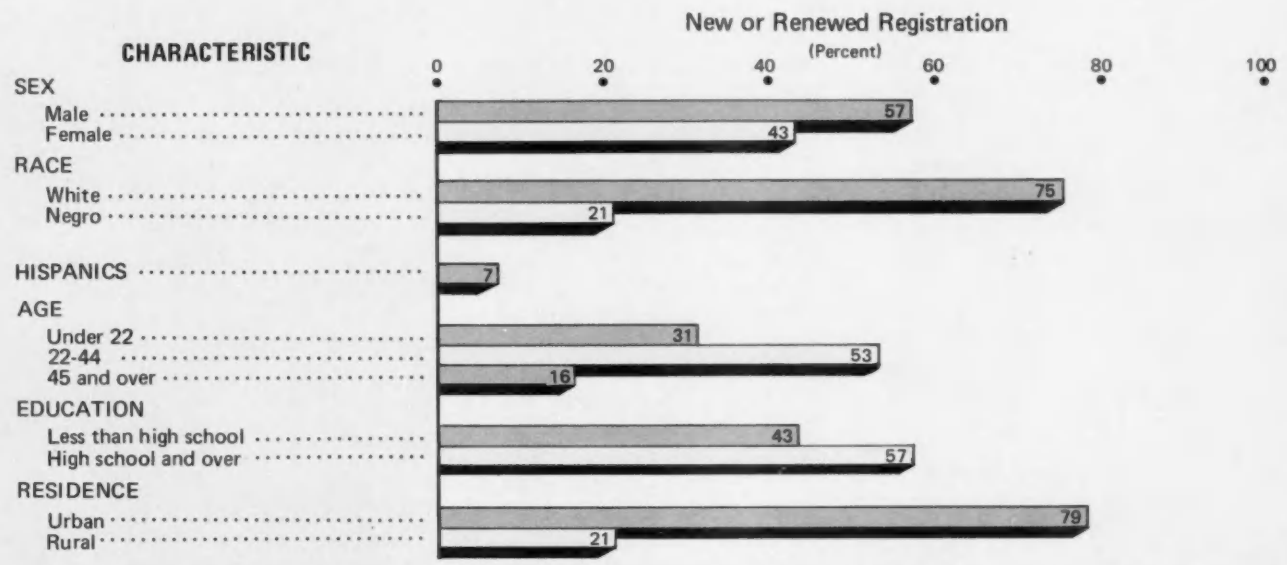
Workers 45 years of age and over made substantially less use of the employment service than did jobseekers in the under 22 and 22-44 age brackets. Older workers made up only 16 percent of all employment service applicants, although they account for 35 percent of the labor force. Some 5.4 million applicants, or 53 percent of the total, were between 22 and 44 years of age, and 31 percent were under 22. Labor force statistics, which are reported for slightly different age brackets, show that 41 percent of all workers are in the 25-44 group and 24 percent are in the 16-24 bracket.

Although they comprised 31 percent of the applicants, workers under 22 accounted for 41 percent of the individuals placed in nonagricultural industries. Applicants in the 22-44 age group accounted for 48 percent of the individuals placed, and the remaining 11 percent were workers 45 and over.

Some 80 percent of the applicants lived in urban areas —compared with about 75 percent of the Nation's population as a whole. Fifty-seven percent of the jobseekers were men, slightly less than the proportion of men in the labor force.

Of the nearly 2½ million applicants placed in nonagricultural industries, 93 percent took jobs expected to last more than 3 days, including 76 percent placed in "permanent" jobs expected to last more than 150 days.

Characteristics of Employment Service Applicants, July 1973 - March 1974



In the Alger Tradition

Dropout Moves Up From Trainee at Skill Center to Office Manager

Michael Scott is no Horatio Alger—not in the sense of starting at the bottom and eventually rising to own the business. Scott can never own the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) Skill Center at Atlantic City, N.J., where he works. It is public property. But Scott has the Alger spirit. He came to the center 3 years ago to train for clerical work and now is office manager.

Scott might make a textbook case study of how a person with poor prospects but good sense can seize opportunities and turn them to career advantage. He used the Job Corps, the Marines, the State employment service, the Veterans Administration, and MDTA to transform himself in a few years from a high school dropout to a responsible manager. And he tries to pass these lessons on to other dropouts who enroll at the center to learn auto or appliance repair, practical nursing, or other occupations.

"I tell them how I was a dropout and now I have a good position and am enrolled at night in college," he said. "I want them to understand the same thing is possible for them."

Anxious to earn some money, Scott dropped out of school in the ninth grade. He couldn't find a job, however, so he enrolled in the Job Corps where he was given remedial education and training in electronics work. "Being away from home was a good experience," Scott recalled, but he still was turned off by classroom studies and yearned for a regular paycheck. After 9 months he left Job Corps.

He did electronics assembly work for about a year and then joined the Marines. "The Marines made a deep impression on me as far as motivation goes," Scott said. "They told me if you want to do something badly enough, you can."

He was discharged in early 1971,

searched unsuccessfully for a job, and finally—with the help of an employment service counselor—enrolled in the Skill Center. He was advised to pick the clerical course since he did office work in the Marines, and for the next 5 months he spent 8 hours a day at typing, remedial education (whose value he now appreciated), and general office studies. He received a $60-a-week training allowance, paid by the Manpower Administration, and an additional $175 a month from the Veterans Administration.

Noting Scott's zeal in class—he was soon typing more than 55 words a minute—Skill Center Director John N. Scioli let him get his skill training by doing bookkeeping and other clerical chores for the center. Scioli was really sold when Scott, who scarcely knew what a budget was, helped him draw up one for the center with such skill that it was accepted with minor changes by the Department of Labor's regional office. "The next thing I did was offer him a permanent job," Scioli said, "but I insisted that he ought to take business courses at Stockton (a State college)."

Scott finished his 5 months of training in October 1971 and immediately went to work full time for the center. He advanced from clerk to bookkeeper in a matter of months, and last year was named office manager, supervising a three-person staff that handles most of the paperwork for the center's 200 students.

His salary—$375 a month at the start—is now $650. In addition, he receives $220 monthly from the Veterans Administration to cover expenses as a full-time night student at Stockton where he is studying such business-related subjects as marketing, communications, and business law. He expects to graduate in 2 more years. And he still has that Horatio Alger will to move ahead.

"My ambition is to get that degree in business administration," he said. "Some day I'll have a business of my own. I may start out in a large corporation but I've always admired people who had their own businesses." □

The audience may be clerical course students (left) or television repair trainees, but Atlantic County MDTA Skill Center Office Manager Michael Scott delivers the same message: "Complete your training."

Book Reviews

Finding 'Judgment Jobs'

Go Hire Yourself an Employer

by Richard K. Irish

Anchor Press/Doubleday, New York, 1973. 165 pages, $2.95 (paperback).

Got job problems? No job? Or not the one you really want?

Richard Irish's *Go Hire Yourself an Employer* offers unique yet practical advice to jobhunters who care about liking the job they get—not just getting it. With lively irreverence, Irish writes for those who are tuned in to the current definition of employment: Meaningful activity rather than just a meal ticket.

The book is a Baedeker for jobseekers caught in the overqualified-for-the-job-you-can-get-and-underqualified-for-the-job-you-want syndrome. It describes how to uncover the hidden job market for judgment jobs. Judgment jobs are jobs in which you're paid for your decisionmaking ability—jobs that demand mental muscle. Basic to finding a judgment job is knowing yourself and being able to demonstrate how you can help the employer you'd like "to hire."

Irish, who is vice president of a consulting firm, and his mentor, employment consultant Bernard Haldane, contend that 80 percent of the good jobs are concealed and can best be discovered by interviewing for information. That means approaching people in the fields that interest you, picking their brains, and asking their advice. You'll be remembered when a judgment job surfaces.

As the title implies, the thrust of this book is to give the jobseeker a large dose of self-confidence. The employer needs you as much as you need him. Stress your achievements, Irish urges. Help an employer think through his problems and you'll earn points.

In addition, there are concrete and specific suggestions concerning interviewing techniques. Asking the right questions will help you decide whether a particular job is right for you and at the same time make a convincing case to an employer that you are a superior applicant. For example, you might ask, "Who is my boss and whom does he report to?" "Can you afford me?" might be asked by those with hyperactive egos. Advice about salary negotiations includes information on how to haggle.

The book is punctuated with earthy phrases. "Interpersonal relationships" is translated into, "Don't spit in the soup; we all have to eat." Jobhoppers are advised to be jobjumpers instead. The objective should be upward mobility, not just movement without a motive. Job-field jumpers are warned of the problems they may face: Shedding one set of behavior patterns and transplanting strengths into another field.

For women, Irish recommends special job-search strategies. One way to achieve equality in the market place is to be assertive and independent. Compete for judgment jobs, not for ones requiring typing and xeroxing.

Despite Irish's nontraditional approach to jobhunting, he expresses conventional attitudes toward work. He reminds us that most jobs can be made into the job we want by expanding their scope, and that a dream job is the job we create for ourselves.

Phoebe Taylor

Big Order Fulfilled

Behavioural Science in Industry

by Richard I. Drake and Peter J. Smith

McGraw-Hill, London, 1973. 134 pages, $10.

In their preface to this slim volume, the authors lay out an ambitious task for themselves. They propose to define behavioral science through a discussion of the methods used; examine some of the science's basic concepts; describe broadly the history of the relationship between man and work; review current thinking about group behavior and the systems approach to viewing organizations; examine ways in which problems in organizations can be appreciated; look at people in terms of how they lead, how they want to be led, and of their growing need to acquire new social skills; and explore job and organizational design and organizational development.

All in 134 pages!

Obviously, such a broad survey in so short a space requires a level of discourse at some remove from the basic data and actual operations of behavioral scientists. The question is whether it can be done at all, without either falsifying behavioral science, or treating the material so superficially as to be uninformative to any reasonably alert reader. In this instance, the answer is "yes." The authors have indeed done justice to their intentions, while maintaining an air of effortlessness through a relaxed and nontechnical prose.

The authors do not expect that on the basis of this book alone managers will be able to apply scientific knowledge themselves. Rather, the purpose is to enable managers to discuss organizational problems with behavioral scientists and to work with them in finding solutions. Within this larger aim, the authors attempt to equip managers to handle the complexity of human behavior in organizations. This attempt is related to the authors' basic "sociotechnocratic" viewpoint: That the problems of modern industrial society, like those of managers vis-a-vis behavioral science, are ultimately problems of the organization and integration of complexity.

Their presentation makes use of a serviceable hierarchy of complexity, starting with organisms at the basic level, and moving on to personality, role, group, organization, institution, and society at successively higher levels of system. The hierarchy roughly parallels the ranges of the major behavioral science disciplines—psychology, social psychology, sociology, and anthropology—and provides the framework for the sequence of chapters. The scheme reappears in several contexts in the book. One of the most interesting and useful applications is an eight-page table describing typical problems that arise from interaction between system levels—such as individual and group, group and organization, organization and environment. For each problem, the table describes typical symptoms, diagnosis, prescription, and action, and criteria for evaluating the outcomes of the problem solution. This table will not enable a manager to carry out the diagnosis, problem-solving process, and evaluation, but it certainly organizes complexity well enough to provide him with a cognitive map of the field.

As the text progresses from the basic system level of the individual organism to successively higher levels, the authors present only those concepts which build toward an understanding of the higher levels of system complexity, and they present these concepts in terms relevant to the industrial manager. Concepts are illustrated through examples from actual industrial settings, rather than laboratory models. Thus the book is not simply a summary of an academic discipline. It builds toward the authors' ultimate conclusion: That conflicting needs of the organization and the workers are not a social dilemma, but rather a problem that can be solved by a marriage between the technologically oriented systems engineering heirs of scientific management and the human relations approach (organizational development, T-groups, etc.).

In this marriage, typified by the Tavistock Institute's "sociotechnical" approach, the organizational developer attends to the needs of both technology and people as he seeks to organize work and workers in the interest of better production and human self-actualization. Obviously, the authors are optimists, with a fundamental belief that human and production values can be synergistically combined, and that there is nothing intrinsically limiting in either human nature or technology, but only a problem of integrating them effectively. As a pragmatic matter, one cannot argue with this assumption; it is necessary if one is to do anything more than throw up one's hands in futility.

Jesse E. Gordon

The Reviewers

Phoebe Taylor is an interviewer with Washington Opportunities for Women.

Jesse Gordon is professor of psychology and social work at the University of Michigan.

☆ U.S. Government Printing Office 1974: 543-619/12

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Single copies of Manpower Administration publications for which no price is indicated can be obtained free by writing the Inquiries Division, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Room 10225, 601 D St., NW. Washington, D.C. 20213. Requests for free publications of the Bureau of Labor Statistics should be sent directly to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212. Please enclose a self-addressed label with all requests for free publications. For publications not available free, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Youth and the Meaning of Work

Manpower Administration report on a study of 1,860 male and female graduating seniors of the class of 1972 from five different colleges and universities in Pennsylvania to determine the postcollege perceptions, attitudes, aspirations, and expectations of contemporary college seniors concerning work and family life. Data may be useful to those committed to helping youth in their search for satisfying and productive work. Specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 32. 75 cents.

The U.S. Industrial Outlook, 1974

U.S. Department of Commerce 385-page annual gives detailed analyses of more than 200 individual manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries, or closely related industry groups, arranged in 10 major sections. Each industry statement contains information on recent developments and projects levels of activity for 1974 and 1980. For first time the book contains special reports on general economic areas that affect most of the industries covered. $3.40.

Career Thresholds, Volume 4

Manpower Administration 198-page volume summarizes some findings of the fourth round of interviews conducted in a 5-year longitudinal study of educational and labor market experience of young men 14 to 24 years of age. Examines school and work experience between 1966 and 1969 of the young men who were in their teens and early 20's at the beginning of the study. Describes the degree and character of the educational and labor market changes that occurred during the 3-year period and attempts to identify some of the correlates of changes. Specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 16. $2.25.

Comparison of State Unemployment Insurance Laws Revision No. 4

Manpower Administration loose-leaf pages of the fourth of a semiannual series of revisions reflecting changes in State laws effective since publication of the September 1973 revision. Includes technical modifications in existing text and tables. $1.75.

Guide to Local Occupational Information 1973/Fourth Edition

Fourth edition of a Manpower Administration directory (176 pages) of selected State employment service studies, bulletins, brochures, and other releases providing current local occupational information. Data could be useful in designing training programs, for counseling in local public employment offices and schools, and for individual jobseekers and vocational counselors desiring concrete information on job opportunities in specific occupations or groups of occupations. Covers two major categories of local occupational information: Occupational Guides, which focus on the nature and characteristics of individual jobs or occupations, and Area Occupational Projection Surveys.

Unemployment Insurance—How It Works For You

Manpower Administration seven-page leaflet answers 10 questions most frequently asked about unemployment insurance.

A Review of Manpower R&D Projects in the Correctional Field (1963–1973)

Manpower Administration monograph reviews the experience of the first decade of projects focused on the criminal offender as a manpower resource. Its primary purpose is to summarize and synthesize the conclusions reached by those projects funded by the Manpower Administration during the period of 1963–1973 so that manpower programing for the criminal offender can draw upon a broad base of knowledge and experience. Specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 28. $1.25.

Immigrants and the American Labor Market

Manpower Administration study which seeks to answer several questions about how immigrants behave in the U.S. labor market: Kinds of skills immigrants bring with them; how these skills are being used; how immigrants adjust to the labor market; and how accurate are traditional measuring devices of immigrants' skill mix and participation in the labor force. Answers to these questions may be useful to those who make policy in the immigration and manpower fields, and also to those in State, local, and private manpower and immigrant-assistance agencies who work with new arrivals. Specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 31. $1.20.

Get Credit For What You Know

Women's Bureau question-and-answer leaflet summarizes ways for women to get educational credits that can put them in a position for better jobs, advancement, or a second chance at college and higher education. 25 cents.

Early Retirement Provisions of Pension Plans, 1971

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin reports findings from a study of early retirement provisions of private pension plans. The provisions were used to determine the effect such plans had on the employment of older workers in 1971. Specify BLS Report 429.

Suggested Format and Content of a Work Sample Manual

Prepared by the Materials Development Center of the University of Wisconsin, booklet lays out a suggested standard format for developing manuals to be used in administering work sample tests. The format is designed to produce manuals that will permit users to construct, administer, score, and interpret the results of the work sample described in the manual. Booklet includes two work sample manuals written in accordance with suggested format. Available from Department of Rehabilitation and Manpower Services, School of Education, University of Wisconsin-Stout, Menomonie, Wis. 54751.

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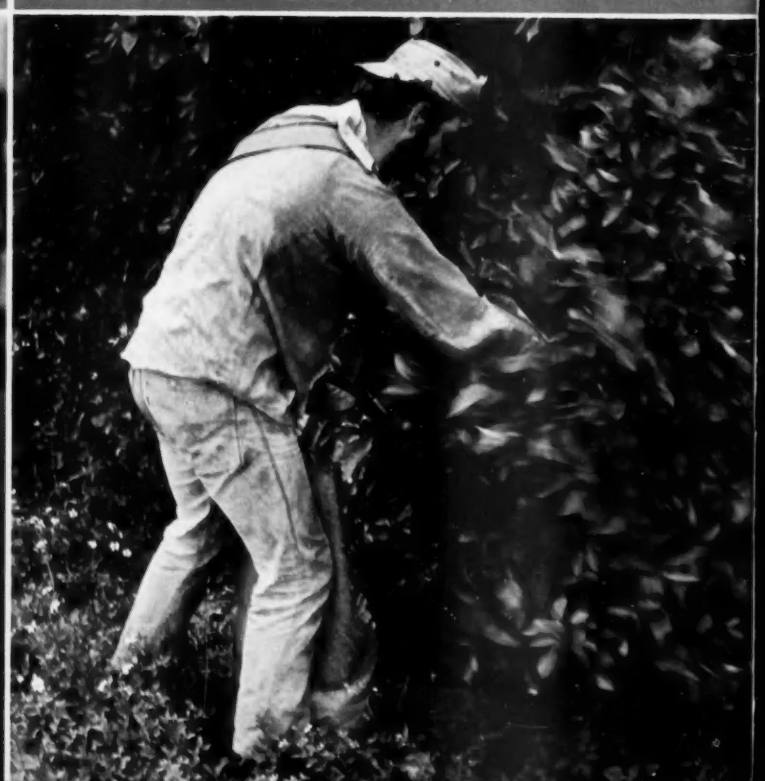
Decent homes, day care centers for their children, regular jobs. These are among the elements of an unusual project that has enabled some Florida field hands to say goodbye to the migrant way of life without giving up the only kind of work that many of them have ever done. For a report see *Adios to Migrancy* in this issue of MANPOWER.